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ABSTRACT

The process of determining textbook content and selecting textbooks for classroom use in public schools throughout America is highly political and raises many fundamental questions about the relationship between education as a social enterprise and other aspects of society--economic, ideological, political, and legal. This study focuses on three concerns: the relationship between textbook production, as the production of social knowledge, and the production of textbooks as commodities within a capitalist economy; the ways states are organized to determine and control textbook content and selection for public schools; and the relationship between the educational bureaucracy and the general public, including specific interest groups. A detailed discussion of the textbook publishing industry covers all aspects, from financing and conglomeration to editorial censorship. Selection of instructional materials is discussed in terms of state methods (centralized or decentralized), criteria, the adoption process, and school budgets. The consideration of external pressures on the selection process includes discussion of groups objecting to particular materials, strategies for influencing the use of instructional materials, and the qualities that make some materials objectionable. Appended is an evaluation summary for instructional materials in social science. (Author/WD)

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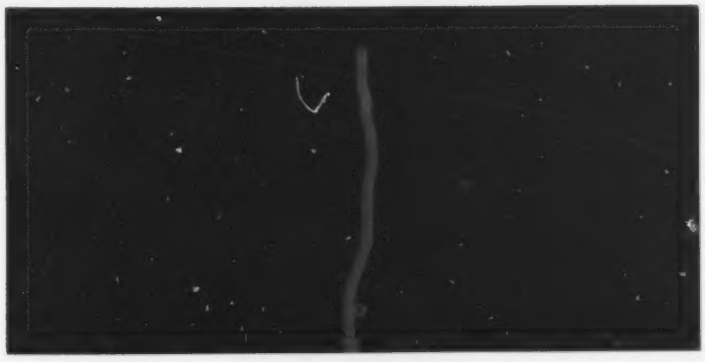

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POLITICS OF TEXTBOOK SELECTION

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April 1981

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Abstract

The impact of textbooks on the educational system and quality of educational outcomes cannot be underestimated. Frequently the classroom text is the only resource on a given subject to which the student will be exposed in his/her entire educational career. The process of determining textbook content and selecting textbooks for classroom use in public schools throughout America is highly political.

This paper will examine the process of textbook selection both in terms of prior research as well as the underlying problems of social and political debate which it raises. The organization of this paper will follow major themes relevant to the politics of textbook selection: the relationship between textbooks as educational materials and textbook publishers as profit making enterprises; how the state is organized to determine and control the content and selection of textbooks for the public educational system; who has access to the state apparatus and the power to influence which textbooks will be selected; and the relationship between the educational bureaucracy and the general public.

Introduction

School children in the United States are one of the largest captive reading audiences in the world today. There are more than 43 million students between the ages of six and 18 who are annually presented with a myriad of instructional materials. The bulk of these instructional materials are textbooks which have a central role in the student's education. According to one estimate, 75 percent of a student's classroom time and 90 percent of homework time is spent with textbook materials (Goldstein, 1978). In combination with the teacher, textbooks are the student's major source of knowledge and information.

The impact of textbooks on the educational system and quality of educational outcomes cannot be underestimated. Frequently the classroom text is the only resource on a given subject to which the student will be exposed in his/her entire educational career. Moreover, textbooks shape and direct the content and methods of presentation used by many teachers. Especially in the elementary grades where teachers must be experts in all fields, the teacher's edition of the state or district adopted texts may be the sole source consulted on a given topic or subject area.

The process of determining textbook content and selecting textbooks for classroom use in public schools throughout America is highly political. It is a charged issue and raises many fundamental questions about the relationship between education as a social enterprise and other aspects of society: economic, ideological, political, legal.

This paper will examine these fundamental issues both in terms of prior research, which has accumulated in terms of information and knowledge, as well as the underlying problems of social and political debate which they raise.

On the one hand, narrowing fundamental issues regarding education and its role in society to the focus of a textbook may seem reductionist. However, the basic tools of an educational system reflect as well as interact with each other to produce a social product: human beings--citizens with specific sets of knowledge, ideas, attitudes, beliefs, and social practices. Understanding who and how school textbooks are selected gives us another insight into the ways in which education reproduces as well as modifies society through its socialization impact on students.

This essay will review major themes relevant to the politics of textbook selection: The relationship between textbook production, as the production of social knowledge and the production of textbooks as commodities within a capitalist economy, i.e., for the profit of individual publishing enterprises. Understanding the specific interface between schools as repositories of knowledge and also as commodities within the marketplace is essential to understanding the dynamics of textbook selection and content determination within the educational system. This is the second area of concern: How is the state organized to determine and control the content and selection of textbooks for the mass public educational system? Moreover, who has access to the state apparatus (e.g., educational bureaucracy) and the power to influence, if not directly determine, which textbooks will be selected once they are already published as commodities? But also, how does the state influence the commodity producers, i.e., the publishers, in terms of the textbook content they produce?

A third area of concern is the relationship between the educational bureaucracy and the general public (including specific interest groups organized in the general public). How does the state respond to and limit

the influence of the general public with regard to content of educational materials, and what are the limits of state power in this respect? Related to this theme is the fourth issue of the relationship between school book content and the judicial system. This is a very interesting topic because it raises some thorny theoretical questions about the ways in which one branch of the state functions to legitimatize another branch of the state when popular pressures themselves call into question the legitimacy of the state's activities and power. There is an entire history of textbook litigation which has grown up in the United States and has to some extent a life and power of its own to manipulate and influence through both direct and indirect channels the content and selection of textbooks for public schools.

For at least the last decade, many social scientists concerned with education have studied the school's hidden curriculum and its implicit, as well as explicit, impact on students (Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977). This focus has occurred almost to the exclusion of examining the explicit educational content of schools and during an era when there have been vast and scathing attacks on public education, particularly in terms of its efficacy to teach basic knowledge and skills. The radical critiques which came out of the 1960s and early 1970s produced a flurry of activity among grassroots educators with respect to the content of educational materials--were textbooks sexist, racist, stereotyped, and biased in their presentation of history?

The Textbook Publishing Industry

A flutter of public and scholarly concern with the selection and content of school textbooks appeared in the early 1970s. A parallel concern

with the book publishing industry did not appear until nearly five years later. The importance of understanding the organization and functioning of book publishing or the politics of instructional materials selection cannot be underestimated. As Lewis Coser indicated, book publishers are the gatekeepers of ideas and knowledge (Coser, 1976). The publishing industry as a cultural as well as economic enterprise plays a critical role in the shaping, production, and dissemination of ideas.

Elementary/high school textbook publishing has a special significance within the book publishing industry. Until the late 1960s elementary/high school book publishers were largely independent publishing houses--Ginn & Company, Addison-Wesley; Holt, Rinehart and Winston--each with its own orientation and attention to a particular segment of the elementary and high school and instructional materials market. During the end of the last decade and throughout the 1970s, a new trend within the publishing industry as a whole accelerated, and textbook publishing was carried along in its wake. This was the trend towards mergers and the absorption of traditionally independent publishing houses by larger publishing firms and by large conglomerate firms--particularly media and data processing conglomerates like IBM, Xerox, RCA, and others.

Why were these conglomerates attracted to independent publishing houses and textbook publishers in particular? The main reason seems to be that textbooks offer a mass market, steady turnover, and relatively stable profits to present to the stockholders. Within the publishing field, textbooks had become the bread and butter of the industry.

The educational system as a unit is the key consumer of printed materials in the United States. Thirty percent of all books sold are purchased

by the educational system and the elementary/high school market accounts for approximately 16 percent of total annual sales (Compaine, 1978). While textbooks are not a particularly high profit item averaging approximately 12 percent net income) (AAP, 1976), they offer a large press run. Typically an elementary textbook run may be one million or more with a secondary textbook depending on subject matter rising into the millions of copies. Publishers can also depend upon a fairly stable sales rate for textbooks over a five to seven year cycle--sometimes longer. Distribution of textbooks is relatively simple because the education system acts as the intermediary between the publishers and the consumer--in this case, the classroom student.

Government Financed Instructional Materials

During the 1960s there was a tremendous expansion of public and private funding for education as a social enterprise. The cold war in schooling originally spurred by Sputnik in 1957 was felt in all corners of the educational establishment and certainly no less in the areas of instructional materials and curriculum development than other facets of the schooling process. The federal government through the Office of Education, National Science Foundation, and the National Institute of Education all offered sizeable grant and contract funds for the planning and development of instructional materials--curriculum packages which frequently attempted innovative approaches to learning by extending their efforts far beyond the scope of the textbook approach. Private foundations, such as Ford, Rockefeller, and Carnegie were also generous in encouraging the experimentation with new instructional technology "media," as these innovations came to be called.

Instructional technologies range from computer programmed learning machines to a wide range of audiovisual programs, including both textbooks

and individualized programmed instruction workbooks (Goldstein, 1978). The race to develop new instructional materials, including the textbook, but ranging beyond the printed word attracted interest beyond the scope of traditional textbook publishing houses. In fact, the structuring of grant monies generally prohibited publishers and other commercial agents from participating in the development of new learning programs. However, they were allowed to participate as the publishers of instructional materials packages--including textbooks--once these materials had been developed and tested. An example was the S-APA (Science--A Process Approach) receiving approximatley $2,250,000 from the National Science Foundation between 1962 and 1969. Once developed, S-APA was transferred to the Xerox Corporation for publication. According to Paul Goldstein, "The role of Xerox in the development of S-APA consisted of refining the materials produced by AAAS's (American Association for the Advancement of Science) summer workshops as well as promoting and distributing the finished product" (Goldstein, p. 18). Even though Xerox was allowed only five year copyright control, Goldstein comments that "S-APA worked. It achieved widespread acceptance in the nation's schools, satisfied its sponsors and probably earned a profit for its publishers" (Goldstein, p. 17).

The availability of funds for the development and purchase of new instructional materials stimulated new economic interest in textbook publishing activities. It was probably one of the most important factors attracting large, high technology conglomerates like Xerox to buy up the small, traditionally independent school book publishers. What are the implications, however, of this trend for the production of school books? The issue can be examined in both quantitative and qualitative terms.

A Growing Market, A Growing Business

In quantitative terms, the push for larger markets, larger press runs, and more profits became more intense throughout the 1970s. This is not to idealize the book publishing industry as an isle of sanctity in the general rush of profit seekers. However, as Theodore Sizer, former dean of Harvard Graduate School of Education stated, "companies like IBM, Xerox, and General Electric know there is a big, growing market in education. These companies bought the educational houses to find out what they did. The real big change will come when they decide what to do" (Black, p. 31). The decision to undertake the development and publication of a new textbook is based principally upon economic rather than educational considerations. These considerations include the estimated demand within the elementary and high school market for a particular series. (Textbooks are most frequently published as a series, for example kindergarten through grade eight science or social studies series, rather than in single grade level, subject specific editions. The large single subject sellers for the high school level, United States history and biology are the exceptions.) Large scale educational consumers such as Texas and California, have a significant impact on the determination of textbook publishers' priorities. Book publishers do careful market studies of the buying trends of major states to plan their program of instructional materials development. The interface of the publishers' economic preference to tailor instructional materials to the large scale educational markets with the educational preferences of these markets is a salient factor of the content determination process.

In this respect, the educational preferences of large elementary/high school book consumers have some leverage and influence over the type and

content of the books publishers print. The ability to sell the textbook, once it has been developed is of utmost concern to the publisher. Since the actual production of a textbook series is a long and relatively costly process (anywhere from two to five years, costing up to several million dollars), publishers want the assurance of knowing that their school book series will sell before they commit large budgets to these undertakings.

Concentration and Conglomeration in Textbook Publishing

Over the past decade there have been a growing number of accusations that the book publishing industry and the publications of textbooks in particular have become monopolized by a small number of very large publishers--usually the subsidiaries of giant conglomerate corporations. To what degree does this trend affect the content and selection of instructional materials? It is apparently important in several respects. One of these has already been mentioned. The large size of the publishing firms which control the textbook publishing market makes these companies especially responsive to the criteria and procedures used by large states which tend to have a more centralized adoption procedure. (The impact of varying types of adoption procedures will be discussed later.) These states often impose content and production-related criteria which have consequences on both what is published and who has the economic capacity to publish instructional materials.

This is reflected in the criteria established by the State of California for printed materials. These include stringent specifications regarding the quality of paper, typeface, and binding which are all of the highest standards. The capability to produce a substantial press run of books for complimentary distribution prior to adoption, display at instructional resource

centers, and pilot testing in school districts are additional unwritten conditions of the adoption process. These conditions, explicit and implicit, imply a very large capital investment without a guaranteed return on the investment. This economic requirement is beyond the financial scope of all but the largest firms operating within the industry. Small publishers are effectively excluded from the instructional materials publishing market and have been absorbed with increasing frequency by the larger publishing houses which are more characteristically than not the subsidiaries of even larger corporations (see Table 1, Conglomerate Control Over Major U.S. Schoolbook Publishers).

It hardly seems justified, however, to assume ipso facto that the control of the publication of education materials by a small group of large companies is an inherent evil in and of itself. What evidence exists to indicate that these publishers might produce content in their textbooks which is consistently different from those of other potential publishers? To date, the evidence is limited and unsystematic. It is mainly available through interviews with sales and editorial personnel of the publishing companies themselves. A recent interview with a vice president of Harcourt Brace Javanovich Publishers, informed the author that his firm had managed to maintain real educational content standards due to the firm's autonomy as a publisher. In contrast, he argued: "In these large firms, owned by huge conglomerates, the bottom line is profit, not quality instructional materials, and as the subsidiary of a conglomerate your company has to show a profit, or else you're out!" (Keith, 1979). One longtime publishing executive of a well known schoolbook company now the subsidiary of a large corporation reported that the parent company is not concerned with the content

TABLE 1

Conglomerate Control Over Major U.S. Schoolbook Publishers

Independently Owned Schoolbook Sector	Conglomerately Owned Schoolbook Sector	
Company	Parent Company	Subsidiary Company
Addison-Wesley	CBS	Holt, Reinhart & Winston
Allyn & Bacon Inc.		
Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich	IBM	Science Research Associates Textbooks (SRA)
Macmillan Inc.		
McGraw Hill Inc.		
Prentice-Hall Inc.		
Scott, Foresman & Co.	ITT	American Book Company
John Wiley & Sons, Inc.	Western Pacific Industries	Houghton Mifflin
	Xerox Corporation	Ginn Textbooks

Data Sources: Publishers' Weekly, BP Report: On the Business of Book Publishing; Literary Market Place, 1978; Bowker Annual of Library & Trade Information, 1978; PTLA; Fortune Magazine, 5/8/78; Moddy's Industrial Manual; Standard & Poor's.

of the books published. Their relationship to the subsidiary is one of profit and loss control. The parent company provides expertise in control of cash flow and profit, loss planning, not in the technical or education aspects of textbook writing and production (Keith, 1980).

Frances Fitzgerald, in the recently published book on the changing content of United States history textbooks, America Revised, seems to confirm the impact of these market conditions by their influence on editorial olicy.

> ...few people in the textbook business seem to reflect on their role as truth givers. And most of them are reluctant to discuss the content of their books....The reticence of the textbook people derives, one soon discovers, from the essential ambiguity of their position. On one hand, they are running what amounts to Ministries of Truth for children, and, on the other, they are simply trying to make money in one of the freest of free enterprises in the United States, where companies often go under. The market sets limits to the publishers' truth giving powers (Fitzgerald, 1979, pp. 27-28).

In fact, market considerations may in large part be responsible for the shifting process in the writing of textbooks which has taken place gradually over the past three decades.

The Change in Textbook Authorship

Generally, books are closely identified with their authors as the products of individual scholars or the collaborative work of a small group of scholars. Textbooks were authored traditionally by individual writers. These writers were identified with the claim to being authorities in the particular field which the book's content covered--say, human biology, mathematics, or U.S. history--or proven and respected educators, who through years of direct teaching experience had developed both a pedagogical mastery and subject area expertise. Gradually, this process has changed.

The trend has been toward a new process of textbook creation come to be referred to as the "managed" text. The managed text has become especially popular at the elementary school level but is also found among secondary schoolbooks and even most recently at the university level. To produce a managed textbook, the publisher contracts a writing team to author a series of textbooks. This writing team is usually managed by an editor of the publishing company (Bowler, 1978). In most instances, however, this is a writing team in name alone, rather than in working style. Team members may include practitioners in the field: classroom teachers, district level curriculum specialists, scholars, even administrators. It is rare for these individuals to meet or function in any coordinated fashion. Coordination is the editor's job: to pull together all the parts which may include a teacher's guide from one author, or even several, depending on grade level span; the texts from several different authors, again depending on subject area and grade level; the workbooks from still another writer; comments and criticism from field testers, usually targeted school districts. It is a very complex and disparate set of inputs which go into completing the textbook series package. If there is a real writer, it is most likely to be the publisher's in-house editor and not the identified editor on the book's title page. All in all, the writing of textbooks is a long and expensive process. Currently the process follows a series of stages including the following:

Determining demand. Publishers determine the demand for a new series based on the field market representatives' contacts with state and local curriculum planners and departments of education which deal with instructional materials selection.

Contacting authors. Based on the projected demand for a new series of elementary texts or a particular high school text, the publisher contracts with two or more leading authorities in the field--usually a subject area expert and an educator. Also, there may be a number of specialists contracted to write special elements such as teaching editions, workbooks, tests, etc. These authors produce a skeletal manuscript which is submitted to the publisher's editors.

Editing. This manuscript is edited for a variety of factors: reading level according to carefully prescribed vocabulary lists; its relative emphasis on different aspects of content; its political orientation; its stand on any controversial issues which may potentially spark outcry from special interest groups within the public; its adequacy in meeting state specified legal compliance requirements such as non-discriminatory representation of men and women, various ethnic groups, and other factors which some states demand.

Pilot testing. With an edited text in hand, most publishers will print a pilot run of books and contract with a school district or set of school districts to pilot test their program before trying to sell it on a mass scale.

Marketing. This is perhaps the most critical phase from the publisher's perspective. Marketing requires an extensive network of sales representatives who keep in close touch with the educational establishment in critical states, or key market areas. The marketing phase has several stages of its own, including the distribution of books to key educators in the field; the display of books at resource centers, book fairs, teachers' conventions; and managing of the state or local level adoption procedure for textbooks.

Publishers devote a considerable proportion of their textbook development budgets to the marketing aspects of the production process. Information is sketchy on the relative costs of each facet of textbook preparation, publication, and distribution (Fitzgerald, 1979; Black, 1967). However, it is known that textbook promotion is far more costly and extensive than trade book promotions. Not only do these books require a large number of exemplar copies, but also a battery of salespersons throughout the nation to assure their arrival to the designated educational consumers.

Free Market and Editorial Censorship

On the one hand, the publishing industry as part of the printed media has a reputation for strong advocacy of the First Amendment with respect to freedom of speech. However, when the publication and editing of textbooks, in contrast to trade books, is in question, the freedom of expression with regard to content seems to be guided by criteria other than the principle embodied in the U.S. Constitution. Censorship of any controversial issue or literary work in an attempt to avoid alienating a potential segment of the market is standard practice. Examples include the systematic exclusion of a play like Shakespeare's Othello "because publishers are convinced that they would lose part of the southern market which would reject a school book that had a play about 'miscegenation'" (Black, p. 55). The opposing, or rather different view with which publishers and educators approach instructional materials is capsulized by Fitzgerald's statements:

> From the publishers' point of view, the educational system is a market but from the point of view of the schools it is a rough kind of democracy. If a state or a school district wants a certain kind of textbook--a certain kind of truth--should it not have it?....In fact, it might be argued that it is less oppressive, that, given the size of the United States, the texts reflect the values and attitudes of a society at large much more accurately than they would without decentralization (pp. 31-32).

In this respect, the question needs to be asked: How do publishers find out what schools want and who in fact determines from the educational side of the equation what is appropriate or inappropriate as textbook content?

There is practically no information other than word of mouth, to document how decisions to include or exclude materials are made by publishers. The impact of instructional materials litigation such as the Kanawha County case which put a series of textbooks being recommended for language arts on trial for being "disrespectful of authority and religion, destructive of social and cultural values, obscene, pornographic, unpatriotic or in violation of individual and familial rights of privacy" (Jenkins, 1979, p. 18). The attempts to ban school textbooks--either through formal litigation, or informal political pressure--has had an impact on the editorial policies and practices of textbook publishers. It may be responsible for a "self-censorship" rule of thumb based on the publishers' worst fears rather than explicit policy directives coming from the educational system itself. This certainly is another area which warrants more systematic investigation.

In summary, what is known to date about the role of the textbook publishing industry in the determination of textbook content is based on studies revealing only certain aspects of the process. There has, however, been no comprehensive or systematic representative study of the entire industry. Specifically, more accurate statistical information regarding the relative costs in the production of elementary and high school textbooks need to be examined; more careful and detailed analysis of the marketing/distribution process in conjunction with the textbook selection process by educational systems (to be discussed in the following section) need to be conducted and certainly a more comprehensive look at the means by which

publishers make editorial decisions to include or exclude ideas, information, and primary materials in school textbooks as well as their information source with respect to what the educational establishment is looking for in instructional materials need to be studied further.

Instructional Materials Selection

The publishing industry is one important element in the politics of instructional materials content. The structure of the state selection process is another. Now we will turn to an examination of the salient aspects of instructional materials selection, beginning with a brief historical overview of instructional materials selection procedures and criteria; analysis of how the selection process is currently structured in the United States, followed by a consideration of factors determining who selects materials; governance of the specific criteria for selection; and specification of the selection procedure.

The History of Instructional Materials Selection

The selection of instructional materials has always been of central concern to the educational process. Since the rise of mass public education in the United States in the middle nineteenth century, educators and lay people have discussed, debated, and fought over what materials should be used in public schools (J. B. Edmonson, 1931; Dewey, 1933; Kilpatrick, 1936; Cronbach, 1955; to mention a few).

The concern over the content of curriculum is an ideological problem which has been a prominent issue throughout the history of public education. This ideological concern has been both with how instructional materials selection processes should be structured, as well as direct pre-occupation

with the content of the textbooks themselves. Nonetheless, the structuring of the selection procedure is in many ways a critical determinant of content. The ways in which this structuring affects textbook content will be discussed in the following sections.

The Structure of the Instructional Materials Selection Process

There are several dimensions to the structuring of the selection process for instructional materials. Each has an important influence on the content of educational materials selected for use in public schools and in some cases influences the content of instructional materials produced by publishers for classroom use. One overreaching dimension is the degree of centralization or decentralization of the actual decision making. A second feature is the specification of criteria which must be used to evaluate instructional materials and determine which will be selected. Another aspect is the composition of persons involved in making the selection among alternative choices. A final factor is the delineation of the procedure in terms of time, location, finance, relationship of the selectors to other bodies--public and private. Each of these areas has its own particular characteristics and mechanisms for influencing the content of textbooks and other instructional materials.

1. Centralization and decentralization: One of the salient aspects of the relative decentralization of the American educational system--with each state having the autonomy to define an almost complete range of educational practices from qualifications of teachers to definition of the elementary and secondary school curriculum--is the decentralization of the instructional materials selection process. There are no federal regulations or specifications regarding what a state is to teach or not to teach in the public school

curriculum. Nor are there guidelines for the way in which educational materials used in public schools should be selected. This being the case, each state has the power to define how it will select instructional materials. Specifically, it is the State Department of Education which has the authority to define policy with regard to choice of instructional materials (Pierce, 1964).

It is relatively easy to make a typology of state adoption procedures throughout the United States on the basis of the degree to which these procedures are centralized or decentralized. According to the typology offered in Table 2, there are four variants of the selection process measured in terms of concentration. The least centralized variant is the local selection model practiced by states. (It should be noted, however, that centralization and local autonomy do not refer to the financing of instructional materials purchases. It is, in theory, possible for a state to allow complete local autonomy in selection, but to finance the purchase at a state level.) The second variant is local selection of instructional materials from a preselected state list. This means that school districts do not control the adoptions procedure; this procedure is defined at the state level and usually executed at the state level. There is some decentralization in this type of adoption process, in that selection committees appointed at the state level, but drawn from the local level may comprise the people who make the actual selections. These states make what are referred to as <u>multiple</u> adoptions, so that local districts then choose among five or six social studies series or several series in mathematics.

A third type of selection procedure is referred to as the dual selection model. The dual selection process combines the local district selection

TABLE 2

Methods of Textbook and Instructional Materials Selection by State

Local Selection	State Adoption; Local Choice from State List	Dual Selection	State Adoption
Alaska	Florida	California	Alabama
Colorado	Hawaii	West Virginia	Arizona
Connecticut	Nevada		Arkansas
Delaware	Virginia		Georgia
District of Columbia			Idaho
Illinois			Indiana
Iowa			Kentucky
Kansas			Louisiana
Maine			Mississippi
Maryland			New Mexico
Massachusetts			North Carolina
Michigan			Oklahoma
Minnesota			Oregon
Missouri			South Carolina
Montana			Tennessee
Nebraska			Texas
New Hampshire			Utah
New Jersey			
New York			
North Dakota			
Ohio			
Pennsylvania			
Rhode Island			
South Dakota			
Vermont			
Washington			
Wisconsin			
Wyoming			

Source: Educational Research Service, Inc., Procedures for Textbook and Instructional Materials Selection, 1976.

at the high school level with the choice among multiple state adoptions at the elementary level. Only two states adhere to this procedure. One, however, is California, among the largest textbook markets in the nation and reputed to have considerable sway over the content of instructional materials at the national level. Finally, there is the centralized model for adoption by which several subject area series are adopted for the entire state by a single committee and the districts select one series per subject area for classroom use. Seventeen states fall into this category. Among them is Texas, another extremely large instructional materials market, and due to its centralized character claimed to be the most powerful nationally. In his book, The American Textbook, Hillel Black states, "if one state provides a large enough market for a textbook, it can ask and sometimes get a publisher to change the content of the school book if the state decides to buy. Because publishers find it less costly to issue a single, nationwide edition, they will frequently incorporate these changes in future printings sold throughout the country. In short, it is possible for one state to determine the content of textbooks used from Maine to Oregon" (Black, 1967).

Centralization or decentralization gives a general indication, therefore, of the power the state wields with respect to market forces. If a state is highly centralized in its adoption procedure and encompasses a large market for the publisher, it can be quite a powerful determinant of textbook content (Black, 1967; Fitzgerald, 1979). States not only influence what publishers print through their selection and review process. The state curriculum guidelines also indicate the scope, sequencing, major concepts, and sometimes even the factual content considered desirable. Centralized procedures seem to have considerably more control, however, over

the quality of production standards for instructional materials, i.e., paper, printing, binding, the timing of adoptions cycles, and legal requirements with respect to content. What centralization or decentralization does not determine automatically are the selection criteria for evaluating instructional materials and the persons who actually screen the materials applying these criteria.

2. Selection criteria: The criteria which are used for the evaluation of instructional materials are by no means homogenous from state to state or from school district to school district. These criteria should be examined with respect to (a) formulation of the criteria; (b) how the criteria are used by the selection committees; and (c) how effective the criteria are in terms of monitoring instructional materials content.

Referring to the formulation of criteria, it was noted by the Educational Research Service study that among decentralized adoption models, the formulation of criteria rest with the local school district. The ERS survey (see Table 3) indicated that over 86 percent of the local school districts surveyed had formulated written evaluation criteria to be used by selection committees in screening instructional materials. The survey does not indicate, however, who established these criteria--the selection committee itself from general district policy guidelines or another district level committee or the school board itself. These districts follow the decentralized adoptions process. Those states adhering to centralized models must formulate evaluative criteria for use at the state level. There is no indication of how this process takes place in these states.

In the state of California, the centralized process operates for choosing materials from kindergarten through grade eight. Educational criteria

TABLE 3

Number of School Districts with Selection Policies and/or Procedures

	Number	Percent
Written policies and/or procedures for materials selection	301	72.7
No written policies or procedures for materials selection	112	27.1
No response	1	.2
TOTAL	414	100.0
Written policies and/or procedures for selection of supplementary materials	210	50.7
No written policies or procedures for selection of supplementary materials	204	49.3
TOTAL	414	100.0

Source: Educational Research Service, Inc., Procedures for Textbook and Instructional Materials Selection, 1976.

are, in theory, specified by an appointed committee which writes the statewide curriculum guidelines for each major subject area--these guidelines are known as the state curriculum frameworks. Because California has a dual process of instructional materials evaluation which specifies that instructional materials must be evaluated for legal compliance with the California State Educational Code, there is a separate set of legal compliance criteria which must be applied to the evaluation process. These legal compliance criteria are written by personnel of the State Department of Education.

There is no survey, to date, providing data on whether or not other states which fall within the centralized adoptions model also have a complex dual system of specifying criteria for evaluation of materials. What is clear, however, is that both state criteria and local criteria must take into account the current "political" values in evaluating educational materials, as well as traditional pedagogical criteria. The experience of the author, as a member of the California State Instructional Materials Evaluation Panel for the Social Studies, was that criteria were overwhelmingly weighted with respect to pedagogical and packaging aspects of books with relatively little emphasis on content. The artificial separation of the legal compliance issues such as racism and sexism from the overall evaluation of the instructional materials weakened the stringency of the process and the potential impact of the selection committee on textbook content.

It appears generally that selection instruments are particularly weak on the evaluation of content and interpretation of information. Perhaps the assumption is that the authors of the textbooks are the authorities on content and that selection committees do not have sufficient expertise to

pass judgment in this realm. However, as mentioned previously, the vast majority of controversial cases regarding textbook content which have occurred in the past 15 years have centered squarely around content issues and have not been focused on variants of pedagogical approach. The interesting issue and question is, why are these evaluation instruments so far off the mark? Clearly, more information regarding the instruments and their background is necessary to make a well documented argument regarding this phenomenon.

3. Who selects the textbooks?: The degree of centralization in the adoptions process not only affects the uniformity of criteria for selection, but allows for great variation in the naming of people who are responsible for the review process. In no case is this left to chance. The old tradition, however, of allowing the superintendent of schools to make text selection is no longer a common practice. In half the cases reported in the ERS 1976 study, the local school board had final authority of approval, while the district superintendent was responsible in only four percent of the cases. In the centralized cases of adoptions, the authority rested with the state board of education operating on the advice of a state appointed selection committee.

The school board members, state or local, are not usually involved in choosing among instructional materials themselves. Again drawing upon the data collected from the ERS survey (1976) there was no one uniform means of selecting committee members to participate in the evaluation process in the case of the non-adoption/decentralized states. The most common method was to allow the school district superintendent to appoint the selection committee (17 percent of the cases). Other relatively common

practices included allowing district selection committee members to volunteer for the task (10 percent of the cases), having committee members chosen by superintendent and constituent groups (9 percent), and in 5 percent of the cases allowing the curriculum supervisor to choose the committee members. It is interesting and informative to note that the ERS nationwide survey did not include information regarding the actual composition of the committees themselves.

Studies have not as yet explored the impact on the selection process of the composition of such committees. In a survey of 140 districts, 55 percent specified parental participation in the selection process; only 16 percent specified civic leaders, while nearly 24 percent indicated student participation in selection committees (ERS Report, 1976). However, participation of persons who are not professional educators is usually quite restricted.

In the centralized states, membership on selection committees is a highly political process and of course a potentially influential position with respect to textbook content. It would generally seem reasonable to hypothesize that the composition of the selection committees will be most influential on textbook content among the large, highly centralized states. However, there are no data systematically indicating the number of textbooks which have been provisionally adopted, subject to changes specified by such committees. Although examples of changes have been cited (Hefley, 1976) it may be that these committees can only influence materials in future rounds of adoption when publishers can respond to their current comments and criticisms. It may be equally probable that these committees have practically no control over the content of instructional materials.

Factors in the committee membership composition such as the tendency towards homogeneity of members with regards to characteristics including ethnicity, sex, age, socioeconomic status and political views may create a consensus rather than diversity of ideas and opinions regarding texts. This is likely to be true if committee members are selected from within the educational establishment, minimizing rather than maximizing variability among membership.

Clearly the influence which the selection committees of centralized state systems wield over textbook content is far greater than the leverage of a particular committee at a local level.

At the local level, in the decentralized adoptions procedures, an assessment of the impact of local screening committees on the content of instructional materials needs to be evaluated more carefully. In the overwhelming number of cases (nearly 88 percent of the 1,275 districts of the ERS study) local committees met with publishers' representatives. The nature of the interaction between these committees and the publishers needs to be better specified. While the ERS study states that publishers' representatives can play an important role in providing selection committees with information about the textbook and instructional materials market, it is more likely that they perform a promotional function.

In my own participation on a California State Instructional Materials Evaluation Panel, textbook publishers made presentations to the committee members--often with elaborate aids--and at rather great expense of bringing representatives from other parts of the country. These were basically sales presentations or marketing sessions designed to gather information regarding their company's product and relay it back to the

central marketing and editorial divisions. However, the nature of the interaction between publishers' representatives and committee members is an important area of influence which needs further exploration.

One cannot omit from a discussion of centralization and the politics of textbook selection the special case of Texas. While Texas is one of 17 central adoption states in the entire nation, the size of its market is so great that many experts familiar with school book publishing have identified it as the single most important actor in terms of state sway over the content of textbooks. In Hefley's book, Textbooks on Trial, which is an anecdotal history of the influence of conservative community forces led by Norma Gable, a Texas parent and textbook crusader, it is noted that "because Texas was the largest purchaser in the nation (of textbooks), the publishers might find it unprofitable to issue different editions and other states would benefit" from the crusading efforts of the Gables to ban certain books and strike out certain factual information, certain topics, and ideas from school materials. Under the centralized model of adoptions these conservative forces were notably successful in blocking the use of books which discussed evolution in biology courses, economic systems other than the pure competition, free enterprise model, and history textbooks which mentioned leaders in Afro-American history such as W. E. B. DuBois.

In the more centralized selection states there is also an apparently close relationship among the formal selection committee, public advocates, and the publishers. Special citizen interest groups, such as the Creationists, have managed through their organized efforts to influence the selection process in centralized adoptions states to touch off the content of textbooks across the entire nation. The extent to which one agrees or

disagrees with this influence, of course, may be largely related to one's particular positions on the issues involved. There is no doubt, however, that the existence of several larger centralized state adoptions has an important effect on the content of school materials.

The degree of centralization also impacts on several other factors which may indirectly influence the content of school materials. The specification of production quality: paper, binding, illustrations at the state level allows for less flexibility in choosing among paperbacks and hardcover books for example. The conditions imposed at centralized levels may also make it harder for small publishers to compete with the larger firms due to the necessary investment outlay to meet state requirements.

In summary, there are strong indications that the degree of centralization or decentralization in the instructional materials adoptions process has the impact of tailoring textbook content to the specifications of large, centralized state buyers. Moreover, centralization in many ways defines certain of the political parameters of the selection process itself. While intense battles may be waged at the local level in decentralized states over the content of a particular book, the existence of large, powerfully organized centralized states and the impact they exert on the textbook publishers may increasingly preempt the range of choices presented by publishers to selection committees. This is an hypothesis which merits careful attention.

4. <u>The structure of the adoptions process</u>: The work done to date on this aspect does indicate that the state plays a critical role in the process of defining instructional materials content. Not only by establishing the selection criteria, but also by defining the structure of the adoptions

process. In many respects, the state defines the legitimate participants in the process and the rules governing their participation.

This is evident also through state control over the timing of new textbook adoptions as well as the extent of financial support the state allocates for the adoption process. In respect to timing, the state or the school district--again depending on the degree of centralization--defines the frequency with which new materials will be incorporated. This is largely a function of budgetary considerations and administrative capacity. Adoption cycles may run anywhere from a two to eight year process. It is important to note that the present and future trend is likely to be towards longer adoptions cycles due to the shrinking of fiscal resources for the purchase of school materials. If school finance becomes tighter in the mid-1980s, this means that instructional materials may be selected less frequently, and also, that there will be a more limited range of materials available in the schools for student learning.

School budgets and textbooks. During the 1960s rather generous sources of funding, particularly in the sciences and social sciences made the innovation of new educational materials possible. The National Science Foundation, for example, provided large grants to educators for the development of experimental teaching materials. At the same time, state and local school districts experienced a period of unprecedented prosperity with respect to their budgets. This prosperity, of course, affected instructional materials. In fact, budgets for the purchase of textbooks and supplies came to be called "instructional materials" budgets at this time to permit the purchase of a growing variety of teaching devices ranging from individualized learning materials to teaching machines and

sophisticated audiovisual equipment. Goldstein notes that between 1960 and 1971, publisher sales of textbooks for use in the elementary grades more than doubled rising from $148.4 million in 1960 to $314 million by 1971. Nonetheless, as a percentage of school expenditures instructional materials was always a rather small item, never accounting for more than 1-1/2 to 2 percent. Goldstein also traces for the middle 1960s how the new range of "instructional materials" including many audiovisual aids began to account for a growing proportion of total instructional materials' expenditures. "Between 1966 and 1972 total sales of audiovisual materials to educational institutions at all levels increased from $118 to $214.7 million. Their share of the total instructional materials market grew from 14.2 percent at the beginning of the period to 19.7 percent at its close. Textbooks' share of the market declined over the same period from 85.8 percent to 80.3 percent" (Goldstein, pp. 23-24). This apparent cornucopia of instructional materials now appears to have been a somewhat brief moment in educational history.

The era of retrenchment in educational resources has arrived nationwide. This means "no frills" instructional materials budgets--which may not be relatively smaller but absolutely they are on the decline. Not only a back to basics approach to subjects is being taken, but a back to the basic, basal textbook and a much more limited range of supplemental materials including media books and other instructional aids may ensue. The basal text--whether it be locally or state adopted--will absorb all or most of the instructional materials budget expenditures as well as most of the students' learning time. Thus, the quality, content and availability of basic textbooks will have a growing influence on the types of learning outcomes we can expect from students in the future.

What declining budgets and longer adoption cycles may mean in a time of rapid scientific and intellectual change is that textbook materials will begin to lag behind the thinking of the times even more than is currently the case. One study of textbooks dealing with Latin America showed that the books were about one decade behind the scholarly field with respect to recent knowledge and interpretations (Keith, 1979). One could speculate that the gap in scientific advancements might be even greater. This is a critical concern in terms of the overall quality of curriculum content.

There is nothing to stimulate a publisher to update materials once a secure eight-year market, for instance, has been won. Even with a major intellectual discovery or scientific breakthrough the publishers would have no incentive to modify materials to be in keeping with the times.

Quality of review process. The other aspect of the selection process which is controlled indirectly by budgetary considerations is the quality of the review process measured by the time devoted to the actual examination of instructional materials. The adoption of a new set of textbooks for any given subject area requires considerable time. It involves soliciting books and examining the instructional materials according to an evaluation instrument. For a major adoption in any principal subject area, a selection committee may have to examine up to several hundred books. This can be an extremely time consuming task. If the selection committee members are employees of the educational system, the school district or state department of education may choose to provide educators with paid release time from their regular activities to participate in selection committees. There is no guarantee that teachers will be represented on

selection committees as part of their negotiated contracts with a school district (in the ERS survey only 22 percent of the districts had teacher participation in selection negotiated into the contract). Over half of the districts surveyed granted teachers release time to participate in the selection committees. In the absence of paid release time to participate on committees, volunteerism would become the operating principle for participation. This has some important political implications which will be further discussed in reference to other issues of selection of the instructional materials screening committees. Suffice it to say, however, that the paid release of school district employees for this purpose may be critical to the quality of the selection process in terms of care and consideration which is devoted to the screening of instructional materials, as well as the potential participation by a variety of people from within the educational community.

External Pressures on the Selection Process

Any discussion about the politics of textbook selection would be incomplete without mention of the external pressures brought to bear on the educational system regarding the content of instructional materials. It is indeed rare to hear of a teacher asking a school district to censor a particular text or going to the school board with complaints about instructional materials selected for his/her classroom. Criticism of instructional materials has almost always come from outside the educational system itself. This is not to imply that teachers are satisfied with any or all materials which pass their way. Their reactions and the ways in which they mediate instructional materials that they as individual instructors find objectionable for whatever reason, however, is another issue.

In analyzing the impact of external pressures on the instructional materials selection process several aspects merit consideration. First is a general understanding of the persons/groups which bring pressure to bear on the system; how they attack instructional materials; why they object to the instructional materials and the particular impact they have on the content of instructional materials as a result of their activism.

Who Objects to Instructional Materials?

It is quite possible that almost anyone who read a U.S. history textbook today would find something objectionable either in general, or in some specific detail (Fitzgerald, 1979). However, it is not everyone who eventually translates that objection into a formal complaint of the system. Over the past two decades there has been considerable controversy regarding the content of instructional materials. One survey showed that 26 percent of 400 school districts throughout the nation reported that there had been a recent challenge to textbooks or instructional materials. These challenges seemed to reach their peak in the years 1975-1976 over the six-year period 1970 to 1971 (ERS, 1976). The nature of these challenges remained unreported. However, other studies have shown a steady stream of the same groups presenting their objections over the last 15 to 20 years (Jenkins, 1979).

Perhaps the most rigorous and consistent efforts to influence the content of texts has come from the Creationist groups who advocate the elimination of teaching evolutionary theories of human development in favor of Biblical creationist theories. The teaching of these two competing explanations has been a consistent controversy which has ultimately been litigated in the courts. The litigation resulted in a standoff, so to speak, with instructional programs and instructional materials being obliged to give "air" time to each point of view.

Creationism is one of several important topics which has continuously been debated. However, objections to instructional materials have frequently begun with the reaction of a student's parent to allegedly objectionable materials and followed the course of complaints to the school principal. In some cases organized interest groups have arisen to monitor instructional materials for a particular aspect of content. These groups are extremely varied in terms of the viewpoints and issues represented, and they range from the Interracial Council on Children's Books formed in 1965 with the objective of identifying racism and sexism in children's books generally and in instructional materials specifically to the American Education Association founded in 1938 with a committee charged to "combat the inroad by PEARL (Public Education and Religious Liberty) which seeks to destroy all Godly (Hefley, 1979) religion in education and denies aid to private and parochial schools." The first project of the Joint Committee of the AEA was to expose and remove atheistic sex education from the classrooms. All groups have in common the emphasis on excluding from the curriculum what is objectionable--according to their own specific set of criteria--rather than advocating the discussion of controversial issues as part of the learning process (Hefley, 1979). Nonetheless, there are a number of organized and ongoing organizations either independently formed or adjuncts of other political interest groups--such as Phyllis Schlafly's Eagle Forum.

What is important about these groups, however, is not the particular issues which they may not have in common, but the ways in which they organize and attempt to influence the content of instructional materials.

Strategies for Influencing Instructional Materials

There are several apparently common strategies used by groups which wish to make an impact on instructional materials. The first is to set up

an organized process parallel to the school system's instructional evaluation procedure. Groups either informally or formally take it upon themselves to monitor instructional materials--in accord with their own interests and own criteria. These special interest groups do not, as a rule--and this generalization should be verified with further empirical research--focus their efforts on the structure or process of instructional materials selection established by the educational system. In some respects it would seem reasonable to hypothesize that these groups would prefer to conduct their parallel review process rather than be incorporated into the system's review process.

Second, these organized groups usually address themselves to political rather than the bureaucratic structures within the school system. It is of course artificial to distinguish between "political" on the one hand and "bureaucratic," as all aspects of the systems are politicized. Nonetheless, the political bodies are those elected to public office--the school boards or state boards of education or those appointed by political bodies--such as the superintendent of schools. It would appear to be relatively uncommon for an organized interest group to address itself directly to an appointed instructional materials review committee within the school system rather than a board of education. The interest group's role is to politicize the content of instructional materials in an effort to further its cause. The instructional materials review committee's role is to depoliticize instructional materials selection in efforts to mediate the clashes between differing interests and viewpoints within the community and society at large. (This, by the way, may account for the overriding emphasis of evaluation instruments on pedagogical elements of the materials rather than

content and explain the separation of controversial legal compliance screening in California from the general process of instructional materials evaluations.)

Third, these groups rely on moral- and value-specific arguments to bolster their viewpoints on instructional materials which should be excluded from the schools' curriculum. The use of moral positions and value positions on issues such as patriotism, sexual behavior, religion, and family life, tend to politicize the instructional materials in question and draw sharp lines within the educational system between those who are "for and against." This is also a way of laying bare the ideological aspects of education and an educational system which presents itself as above ideology and above the specific interests on any group or class within the society. Such an unveiling is crisis-provoking for the school system because it calls into question the authority and legitimacy with which the school may present itself as well as the degree to which it is really autonomous of specific interests.

Why Instructional Materials are Objectionable

It would be simple to merely list the topics or issues which over the past 25 years have caused the most controversy in instructional materials. This would fail to answer the more interesting and meaningful question of why certain materials are found objectionable; objectionable to the point of insisting that they be removed from the school's curriculum. A cursory perusal of the issues as reviewed by Jenkins (1979) and Davis (1979) indicates a surprisingly innocuous set of questions in terms of the burning issues of the last decades of the twentieth century. For the most part the questions are "oldies": the teaching of evolution; questions of sex education;

the use of instructional materials which contain profanities; instructional materials which ignore or actually present a non-religious worldview. A few new topics such as the portrayal of ethnic minorities and women have joined the ranks of issues, but these are by far in the second string of runners in the race.

The continued efforts to wage battle over instructional materials suggests something of the underlying nature of the educational process and its links with the modification or preservation of the socio-political status quo. These controversies also testify to the political nature of the educational process. Groups which direct their focus to instructional materials recognize the degree to which instructional materials are vehicles of political socialization. Bringing the issue of textbook content into the public eye and politicizing it, is threatening to the legitimacy which the schools claim in society. This legitimacy is based on--in part--the assumption that the schools teach the truth--that is pure, objective knowledge. Political controversy over the content of textbooks undermines this assumption because it raises the fundamental question, Is there such an animal as pure, objective knowledge? It also raises another related question, Do these schools and textbooks really purvey objective knowledge through the schooling process?

In many respects these questions and remarks at the conclusion of this essay are speculative and require further investigation. There are few American scholars who have discussed the relationship between school curriculum (or specifically, instructional materials) and the ideological role and struggles of the educational system in society. This has been a topic of greater interest and concern in Western Europe and Latin America than in

the U.S. (see Althusser, 1971; Boudieu & Passeron, 1977; Establet & Baudelot, 1975; Vasconci, 1977). It is likely to become a more controversial topic in the closing decades of this century, however, as the struggles among competing social forces within the society are sharpened at the level of the economy and in the wider political arena.

APPENDIX

Adoption Code #/s _____

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS COMMISSION
EVALUATION SUMMARY --- INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS IN
SOCIAL SCIENCE

PUBLISHER: _____

TITLE (Item & Series): _____

PUBLISHER GRADE LEVEL: _____

DESCRIPTION OF MATERIALS:

Basic _____ Supportive _____ (List numbered components on back of this sheet.)

Kind of Material: Textbook ☐ Series of Texts ☐ Set ☐ Kit ☐ AV ☐

Teacher Guides/Editions ☐ Bilingual ☐ Other _____

GENERAL DESCRIPTION _____

_____

_____

_____

GOALS & OBJECTIVES _____

_____

_____

_____

METHODOLOGY _____

_____

_____

EVALUATION INCLUDED _____

_____

_____

TEACHER GUIDES/EDITIONS _____

_____

_____

I. Analysis According to Education Code Section 60045

A. Please indicate by checking the appropriate box the extent to which the material meets the requirements of this Code Section. "5" indicates that the material meets the criteria at a high level; "1" indicates that the material does not meet the criteria.

Is the material:

		1	2	3	4	5
Accurate	poor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Objective	poor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Current	poor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Suited to the needs and comprehension of pupils at their respective grade levels	poor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

B. Identify by page and line material that is factually inaccurate, and describe the inaccuracy. (Attach separate sheet if more room is required.)

II. Compliance with Appropriate Social Content Requirements of the Education Code

A. Please indicate by checking the appropriate box whether or not the material meets the following requirements:

1. Accurately portray, whenever appropriate, man's place in ecological systems and the necessity for the protection of the environment (Sec. 60041a).

2. Accurately portray, when appropriate, the effects on the human system of the use of tobacco, alcohol, narcotics, restricted dangerous drugs, and other dangerous substances (Sec. 60041b).

YES	NO	NA
☐	☐	☐

B. Identify by page and line any material that does not comply with the above requirements and describe the violation. (Attach separate sheet if more room is required.)

IV. Analysis According to Criteria

A. Instructional goals. For each of the following goals for social science education that should be reflected in both pupil and teacher material, consider the necessary subtopics as a guide to the final rating. (NA means that the nature of the materials is such that the criteria are inapplicable.)

1. Enable students to develop understandings based on data, generalizations, and interdisciplinary concepts drawn from the various social sciences:

   a. Use data to develop generalizations and test hypotheses.
   b. Understand the processes by which various disciplines develop concepts.
   c. Apply concepts to human experience.
   d. Show the relationship between concepts.
   e. Develop attitudes and values based on a conceptual scheme.

   1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ NA ☐

2. Enable students to develop and practice a variety of intellectual and work study skills appropriate to the social sciences:

   a. Develop and use skills of critical thinking.
   b. Develop and use valuing skills; to recognize and clarify problems; and to manage or resolve them.
   c. Develop and use creative ways to solve problems.
   d. Become increasingly self-directing.

   1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ NA ☐

3. Enable and encourage students to understand and respect individual and cultural differences and similarities:

   a. Understand that all groups both native and immigrant have made unique and significant contributions to life in the United States.
   b. Be aware of the positive moral values that persons from all groups both native and immigrant have exhibited in their lives.
   c. Study the development of various ethnic, nationality, and cultural groups.
   d. Accept without prejudicial judgment the differences in conduct, taste, religion, beliefs (including ideas of human origins, i.e., evolution, creation, etc.) and standards of living.
   e. See the result of interaction among various groups as it has limited or enhanced social, economic, or political choices.

   1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ NA ☐

B. Learner materials. Indicate the extent to which these materials:

	1	2	3	4	5	NA
1. Motivate students to think critically and to use problem-solving techniques.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Provide for difference in learning styles, interests, and achievement.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Include suggestions for independent study, and allow for research.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Ask the student to apply what has been learned in new situations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Provide opportunity for decision-making and for defense of a decision.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Present varying points of view on major topics, expressed by different authorities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Include both primary and secondary sources.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Provide different methods of analysis of controversial issues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Include, when appropriate, the significance of belief systems, such as religion, in shaping moral and ethnic precepts, and the contribution of religion to literature, art, music, law, and morality.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Include, when appropriate, examples of commonly accepted positive moral values as exemplified in the lives and struggles of men and women in a variety of cultural situations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Use metric measures when appropriate.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Contain, when appropriate to the comprehension of the pupils, the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

C. Teacher materials. Indicate the extent to which these materials include:

	1	2	3	4	5	NA
1. Meaningful pupil activities to increase interest and participation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Outline of learning experiences for each level of a series and the relationship of the learning experience to concept development and the social science disciplines.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Suggestions for various teaching strategies to aid in concept and skill development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Supplementary data and background information.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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